5: Schwimmer E-4,5 (1966-1967) 1973
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making salt were described to me, the housewife depends mainly on trade salt. Meals never consist of more than one course. Plates, forks and spoons are owned by all households but people do not always use them. While boiling is the most common way of preparing food, bananas, yams and breadfruit are usually roasted. Meat is often preserved by daily smoking, sometimes for long periods. There is a rule against eating meat 'in lent' and this is kept very strictly, but probably for traditional religious reasons to be discussed later. The main drink with meals is a soup consisting of the water in which the vegetables and herbs were cooked.

Foraging. A good deal of plant and animal food is obtained from foraging, especially in the tropical rain forest which covers most of the Northern District. Among foraged animal foods I would mention especially grubs, frogs, snails, rats, bush eggs and lice. Foraged plant foods are especially valued during the dry season when roots, leaves and fern fronds may make up part of a meal. Savoury herbs and leaves, however, are collected at all times of the year. Some food plants, though growing in the forest, are owned by individuals so that the gathering of these plants may be better described as harvesting than collecting. The most important are the *tauga* and *puga* nut, sago, breadfruit, wild fig, and fruiting pandanus.[4]

Hunting. According to Waddell and Krinks, about two man-hours weekly are spent on hunting (3.7 hours by men and 0.3 hours by women). Hunting patterns on the Mount Lamington foothills differ widely from those on the alluvial plains where kunai grass is widespread. On the foothills, there is hunting in reverted gardens and in very limited areas of virgin bush. The usual quarry consists of small marsupials and birds. If a pig is encountered, it is invariably a village pig whose owner has a claim to the carcase. The game population was virtually exterminated after the introduction of guns in the 1950s. In the kunai country, on the other hand, hunting land is abundant. The technique is by firing the kunai so that the animals can be shot when they escape. Such a hunt requires a large number of men who ring the burnt-over area. Not only marsupials but also pigs are killed, either by gunfire or by being roasted alive in the kunai grass. By no means all animals killed in the fire are retrieved. Fires tend to get out of hand and to spread over surrounding bush land which then is often covered with kunai grass and so is useless for purposes of cultivation.

Fishing. The supply of fish has suffered greatly with the introduction of snorkels after the Second World War, as this equipment enabled the Orokaiva to fish out their rivers almost completely in a very short time. Fish is still an important resource, however, in the lower reaches of the huge rivers which run through the Northern District: Kumusi, Ambogo, Girua, Sambogo, etc. In Inonda, the village studied by Crocombe and Hogbin (1963) and Waddell and Krinks (1968), 3.8 man hours per week are spent on fishing, mostly with spears, and the product is used not only for consumption but also for trade. (Inonda people also trade meat and bush eggs.) Many of the villages near the mountain, such as Sivepe, have very little fish. Apart from a few eels and crabs, the rivers contained a small supply of two-inch-long fishes caught in April with a small hand-net used as a scoop. (See Williams 1930:53 for description.)

Animal Husbandry. There are three kinds of domestic livestock: pigs, dogs and fowls. Every man still has one or more small dog which he uses for hunting

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to a man who had lent an ornament for a recent ceremony. I was told that meat is sometimes kept for 'months' so it can be offered at a feast or used to discharge an obligation. The housewife smokes the meat over the fire every day so that, after a while, it becomes very 'strong'; the 'stronger' it is, the better.

While the economic motivation in the final disposal of the joints is plain enough, it is less easy to understand the elaborate exchanges immediately following the killing. There are no taboos that could explain why these exchanges were made. One might, of course, account for the whole series of gifts in the same way as I accounted for the taro gifts made between close associates: as a means of maintaining a quasi-commensal kind of social relationship. But such an explanation obscures an important difference between gifts of taro and pig meat, namely that gift taro is usually only a small part of the harvest, whereas it appears to be regular practice (even though not supported by taboo) to give away *all* the meat of a pig one has killed. There is a strong, empirically demonstrated, preference for eating pork that has been *given* rather than pork that has been personally killed.

The essential difference between taro and pork, as perceived by the Orokaiva, has already been discussed in a previous chapter. The difference is that taro is regarded as a staple food to keep men alive, whereas pork is regarded as a food of special power enabling men to succeed in tasks of great difficulty, in which success is always precarious. Pork has a special power or *ivo*. The reality of this belief is obvious from field observation. Meat-eating arouses in the Orokaiva a mood of extraordinary festivity and gaiety. After meat, he shows an exuberance and excitement Westerners display only when they have drunk a good deal or are 'turned on' by mild drugs. While one can think of biochemical causes for the Orokaiva behaviour, they explain this excitement themselves by referring to the *ivo* or spiritual qualities of meat.

These beliefs do not, in themselves, explain why it is considered better for meat to be given rather than consumed by the killer. They do, however, carry us back to the myth – already considered in detail – by which Orokaiva explain the origin of human *ivo*. *Ivo* was personified in Pig-man Totoima until his son slew him and cut his body into pieces. These joints, shared out among men, made the people multiply so that men are now spread throughout the world. The important point to note in this myth is that *ivo* did not come from the mere eating of the meat, but from the sharing out, following by the eating. If *ivo* is to be attained, it has to be through the re-enactment of the myth, which means not only the eating but also the sharing out. This sharing out is always done by cutting a pig into the very same joints as those into which the dead Totoima was dissected. Hence pork – whether derived from a wild or a domesticated pig – is magically most effective if it is a gift.

5. *Domesticated Pig as Victim*

Pig meat provided at the more important ceremonies of the Orokaiva comes far more frequently from domesticated than from wild pig. One reason for this is obviously practical: the more important ceremonies require very intricate planning in many spheres. The meat supply, which is a crucial requirement for such ceremonies, cannot be left to chance, though wild pork can usually serve to

Chapter 3

The village economy

This chapter describes briefly the Orokaiva pattern of production and distribution, with particular reference to Sivepe and Inonda.[1] Traditionally the villager operated within quite narrowly circumscribed physical limits. Each community functioned largely as an independent subsistence unit, almost all the requirements of life being produced through shifting agriculture and the subsidiary pursuits of fishing, hunting and foraging on its own land. Production was directed almost entirely to immediate and direct consumption, none of the staple foodstuffs except yams lending themselves to storage; exchange was confined largely to kindred within the community or in closely neighbouring communities. Beyond this, minor and informal trade links had developed between some of the inland and coastal peoples, but the degree of inter-dependence established can be considered insignificant.

The contemporary economy comprises both subsistence and monetary sectors, with the former dominating. Most money traffic is with the non-agricultural sector of the national economy and there is little movement of money between subsistence units.

(a) The subsistence sector

(i) Production. The pattern of subsistence production is, as yet, little modified by cash cropping, in spite of the latter being based on permanent tree crops which involve substantially different agricultural practices.

Gardens are made in secondary growth where the forest has regenerated over a fallow period of about ten years. Little primary forest survives among the Mt Lamington Orokaiva and, even where it does, secondary growth is preferred for gardening as it is easier to clear. In addition to the shifts in garden locations, many settlements also change sites at frequent intervals, the cycle appearing to be a little longer than the cultivation cycle. All

[1] More detailed descriptions are given in Crocombe and Hogbin 1963:7-13, Dakeyne 1965:54-92 and Rimoldi 1966:13-28.

556 An important status indicator is the size of an individual's yam holding. Yams both enter into ceremonial exchanges and are stored for consumption during the dry season when garden foods are in short supply. Compared with taro, work on yams is 'hard' and not everybody grows them. In harvesting the owner seeks assistance from others and the services so rendered are normally reciprocated in the form of gifts of yams rather than the subsequent rendering of an equivalent labour service. The more assistance an individual can solicit the greater his potential capacity to increase his yam holding and so increase his standing in the community while meeting some of the needs of those without yams. In such a case there is no limit to the individual level of production although there is in demand of the group as a whole. However, there is no evidence to suggest this demand is met since annually people must resort to the production of less favoured foods such as sago to satisfy requirements. This suggests that the customarily defined span of activities may be so great as to leave the people without the capacity to satisfy their demand for yams, although the exchange system functioning through the network of ceremonial and leisure activities does permit the more even distribution of scarce resources among the group and provide its individual members with a higher degree of security than they would otherwise have.

121 Disregarding the merits of Fisk's hypothesis as applied to pristine subsistence communities, virtually all are now elements in much broader political, economic and religious systems. This is directly reflected in work patterns where novel demands are made on the people's time and the level of out-migration by adult males leaves a heavier work load for those remaining behind. As the linkages with the external sector become more effective so these features, which may be largely unrelated to the increasing commercialisation of the economy, become more significant. On these grounds Salisbury's thesis (1962) that the change from a stone to steel technology has resulted in a considerable saving of labour time in certain axe-using activities cannot usefully be presented as additional evidence for the availability of labour for commercial activities.

A final reason for making a comprehensive study of activity patterns is to test the assumption that the particular nature of organisation in subsistence agriculture is well suited to the grafting on of commercial activities. In considering tillage, animal husbandry and construction in traditional societies Udy (1960:85) states:

> None of these processes ordinarily requires the individual attention of members of the production organization. It is perfectly possible to cultivate a field, tend a herd, or build a house, and be carrying on some other activity during the same period. In fact, in tillage and animal husbandry there are limits beyond which more exclusive attention to the process

Such weekly variations can, in part, be correlated with rainfall (see Fig.6:5), less work being done in wet weather as virtually all Orokaiva activities are pursued out of doors; even cooking, weather permitting, is done in front of rather than inside the house. However, while the labour requirements of certain activities vary little from week to week, others are restricted to particular parts of the year or are in response to specific events, and it is these extraordinary activities which commonly account for the weekly variations in activity time.

(a) The subsistence sector

(1) Food production. Subsistence activities predominate, accounting for 30 of the 40.6 hours expended per man-week (see Table 6:4), and within these gardening is the most important single category involving 13.2 hours with bush clearing another 3.7 hours per man-week. Nine hours of the gardening time are spent on the cultivation of the staple food crop, taro.

Although the data provide little evidence for any relationship between the pattern of gardening activities and climatic seasonality, this may be accounted for by the absence of a distinct 'dry' during 1964 (see Fig.6:4). The Sivepe people speak of the dry season as, traditionally, a 'time of famine' and intensification of work when their taro gardens are not producing and they are obliged to resort to wild yams and breadfruit for sustenance, together with the cultivated yams harvested and stored during the preceding wet season. While acknowledging that this has been substantially modified with the introduction of Xanthosoma and sweet potatoes, and the increasingly common practice of sago extraction, the fact that August 1964 proved to be a wetter month than December in Sivepe[1] results in a less well defined seasonal pattern being presented by the data than might otherwise have been the case.

New garden sites are cleared throughout the year but preferably following dry spells of a week or more for successful burnings. However, there are few taro tops available for planting during the dry season itself. Table 6:4 shows that the most intensive clearing took place during period I, with 4.4 hours per man-week. This figure includes 0.8 hours expended on the communal garden and the time spent on clearing for subsistence therefore approximates more closely to the figure of 3.3 hours for period III, the early part of the wet season.

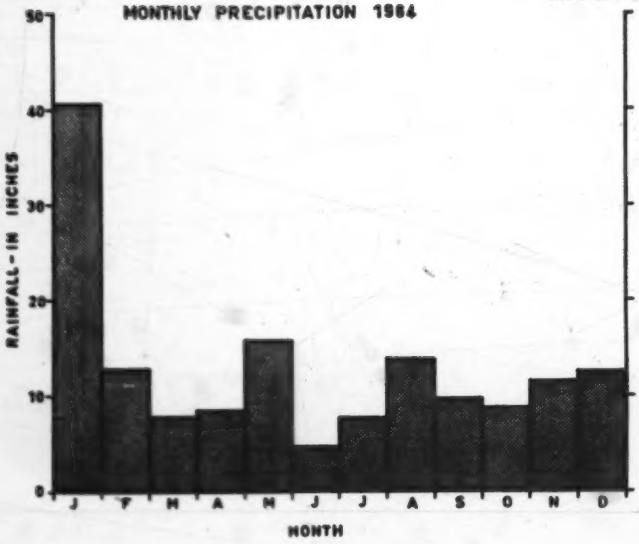
The time devoted to subsistence gardening tends to increase during the survey. However, in comparing taro, yam and sweet potato, distinct patterns of activity emerge. In taro cultivation

[1] 15.42 and 14.17 inches being recorded respectively.

[TEXT CONTINUED ON PAGE 83]

AWALA
MONTHLY PRECIPITATION 1964

FIGURE 6:4 132



much time is spent in planting and, more particularly, maintenance, unlike the other crops, which suggests that their labour requirements are much lower. 512 433

In spite of the atypical weather experienced during 1964, harvesting patterns vary for the several crops. While time devoted to taro cultivation always exceeds that of the other two crops, harvesting falls off markedly during the dry season. In contrast, the time devoted to the harvesting of sweet potato increases steadily through the survey, while that of yams is confined almost entirely to the wet season when large quantities are stored in specially constructed yam houses (or occasionally in holes in the ground). 241 [22] [25]

As with the sweet potato and yam, work on the minor crops and economic trees is restricted almost entirely to harvesting their products - 1.6 hours per man-week. Ina, pitpit, bananas, sugar-cane, areca, coconuts and breadfruit are the major items in this category.